

CHRONIC TOXICITY SUMMARY

METHANOL

(methyl alcohol, wood spirit, carbinol, wood alcohol, wood naphtha)

CAS Registry Number: 67-56-1

I. Chronic Toxicity Exposure Level

<i>Inhalation reference exposure level</i>	4,000 mg/m³ (3,000 ppb)
<i>Critical effect(s)</i>	Increased incidence of abnormal cervical ribs, cleft palate, and exencephaly in mice
<i>Hazard index target(s)</i>	Teratogenicity

II. Chemical Property Summary (HSDB, 1999; CRC, 1994)

<i>Description</i>	Colorless liquid
<i>Molecular formula</i>	CH ₃ OH
<i>Molecular weight</i>	32.04 g/mol
<i>Boiling point</i>	64.6°C
<i>Melting point</i>	-97.6°C
<i>Vapor pressure</i>	92 torr at 20°C
<i>Solubility</i>	Methanol is miscible with water, ethanol, ether and many other organic solvents.
<i>Conversion factor</i>	1 ppm = 1.31 mg/m ³

III. Major Uses and Sources

Originally distilled from wood, methanol is now manufactured synthetically from carbon oxides and hydrogen. Methanol is used primarily for the manufacture of other chemicals and as a solvent. It is also added to a variety of commercial and consumer products such as windshield washing fluid and de-icing solution, duplicating fluids, solid canned fuels, paint remover, model airplane fuels, embalming fluids, lacquers, and inks. Methanol is also used as an alternative motor fuel (HSDB, 1999). The annual statewide industrial emissions from facilities reporting under the Air Toxics Hot Spots Act in California based on the most recent inventory were estimated to be 3,009,776 pounds of methanol (CARB, 1999b).

IV. Effects of Human Exposure

The majority of the available information on methanol toxicity in humans relates to acute rather than chronic exposure. The toxic effects after repeated or prolonged exposure to methanol are believed to be qualitatively similar but less severe than those induced by acute exposure (Kavet and Nauss, 1990). These effects include CNS and visual disturbances such as headaches, dizziness, nausea and blurred vision. The role of formate, a metabolite of methanol, in chronic toxicity is unclear.

In one study, symptoms of blurred vision, headaches, dizziness, nausea and skin problems were reported in teachers aides exposed to duplicating fluid containing 99% methanol (Frederick *et al.*, 1984). Individual aides worked as little as 1 hr/day for 1 day a week to 8 hrs/day for 5 days/wk. The workers' total exposure duration was not mentioned. A dose-response relationship was observed between the self-reported amount of time spent at the duplicator and the incidence of symptoms. The concentrations of methanol in the

breathing zones near the machines in 12 schools ranged from 485 to 4096 mg/m³ (365 to 3080 ppm) for a 15 minute sample.

Forty-five percent of duplicating machine operators experienced blurred vision, headache, nausea, dizziness and eye irritation (NIOSH, 1981). Air concentrations of methanol for 25 minutes near the machines averaged 1330 mg/m³.

Employees working in the proximity of direct process duplicating machines complained of frequent headaches and dizziness (Kingsley and Hirsch, 1954). Air concentrations of methanol ranged from 15 ppm (20 mg/m³) to 375 ppm (490 mg/m³).

Thirty young women, who had polished wood pencils with a varnish containing methanol, all experienced headaches, gastric disorders, vertigo, nausea and blurred vision (Tyson, 1912; as cited in NIOSH, 1976).

None of the above studies specified the workers' total duration of exposure.

Ubaydullayev (1968) exposed 3 to 6 subjects to methanol vapor for short durations (40 minutes for some subjects and others for an unspecified amount of time). Electrical reflex activity in the cortex of the brain was significantly altered upon exposures to 1.17 mg/m³ (0.89 ppm) or 1.46 mg/m³ (1.11 ppm). No effect was observed at 1.01 mg/m³ (0.77 ppm).

V. Effects of Animal Exposure

With the exception of non-human primates, the signs of methanol toxicity in commonly used laboratory animals are quite different from those signs observed in humans (Gilger and Potts, 1955). The major effect of methanol in non-primates (rodents, dogs, cats, etc) is CNS depression similar to that produced by other alcohols. Metabolic acidosis and ocular toxicity are not observed. The differences in toxicity are attributed to the ability of non-primates to metabolize formate more efficiently than humans and other primates (Tephly, 1991).

Two chronic studies have been conducted with monkeys. In one study, ultrastructural abnormalities of hepatocytes indicating alteration of RNA metabolism were observed in rhesus monkeys given oral doses of 3 to 6 mg/kg methanol for 3 to 20 weeks (Garcia and VanZandt, 1969). In a study aimed at examining ocular effects, cynomolgous monkeys were exposed by inhalation to methanol concentrations ranging from 680 mg/m³ (520 ppm) to 6650 mg/m³ (5010 ppm) for 6 hours per day, 5 days per week for 4 weeks (Andrews *et al.*, 1987). No deaths occurred and no treatment-related effects were found upon histopathologic examination. However, Andrews *et al.* did not examine possible neurologic or reproductive effects which have been observed in other species at lower concentrations (see Sections IV and V).

Exposure to a mixture of methanol and other solvents has been associated with central nervous system birth defects in humans (Holmberg, 1979). However, because of mixed or inadequate exposure data, methanol is not considered a known human teratogen.

In two separate studies in male rats, inhalation exposure to methanol ranging from 260 to 13,000 mg/m³ for 6 to 8 hours per day either for 1 day or for 1, 2, 4 or 6 weeks resulted in a significant reduction in testosterone levels (Cameron *et al.*, 1984; Cameron *et al.*, 1985).

Ubaydullayev (1968) exposed rats (15 per group) to 0, 0.57, or 5.31 mg/m³ methanol continuously for 90 days. Chronaxy ratios of flexor and extensor muscles were measured in addition to hematologic parameters and acetyl cholinesterase activity. No changes were apparent in the 0.57 mg/m³ group. Effects observed in the 5.31 mg/m³ group included decreased blood albumin content beginning 7 weeks after exposure, slightly decreased acetylcholinesterase activity, decreased coproporphyrin levels in the urine after 7 weeks, and changes in muscle chronaxy. (Chronaxy is the minimum time an electric current must flow at a voltage twice the rheobase to cause a muscle to contract. The rheobase is the minimal electric current necessary to produce stimulation (Dorland, 1981).

Pregnant rats were exposed by inhalation to methanol at concentrations ranging from 5000 to 20,000 ppm for 7 hours per day on days 1-19 gestation, and days 7-15 for the highest dose group (Nelson *et al.*, 1985). A dose-related decrease in fetal weight, an increase in extra or rudimentary cervical ribs, and urinary or cardiovascular defects were observed. Exencephaly and encephalocele were observed in the 20,000 ppm dose group. The no-observed-adverse-effect level (NOAEL) was 5000 ppm.

Pregnant mice were exposed to methanol vapors at concentrations ranging from 1000 to 15,000 ppm for 7 hours per day on days 6-15 of gestation (Rogers *et al.*, 1993). Increased embryonic and fetal death, including an increase in full-litter resorptions, was observed at 7500 ppm and higher. Significant increases in the incidence of exencephaly and cleft palate were observed at 5000 ppm and higher. A dose-related increase in the number of fetuses per litter with cervical ribs (usually small ossification sites lateral to the seventh cervical vertebra) was observed at 2000 ppm and above. The NOAEL was 1000 ppm.

VI. Derivation of Chronic Reference Exposure Level (REL)

<i>Study</i>	Rogers <i>et al.</i> (1993)
<i>Study population</i>	Pregnant mice
<i>Exposure method</i>	Discontinuous inhalation, 7 hours/day on days 6-15 of gestation
<i>Critical effects</i>	Abnormal cervical ribs, exencephaly, cleft palate
<i>LOAEL</i>	5000 ppm
<i>NOAEL</i>	1000 ppm
<i>Benchmark Concentration (BMC₀₅)</i>	305 ppm
<i>Exposure continuity</i>	7 hr/day
<i>Exposure duration</i>	10 days
<i>Average experimental exposure</i>	89 ppm at BMC ₀₅ (305 ppm x 7/24)
<i>Human equivalent concentration</i>	89 ppm at BMC ₀₅ (gas with systemic effects, based on RGDR = 1.0 using default assumption that lambda (a) = lambda (h))
<i>Subchronic uncertainty factor</i>	1 (see below)
<i>LOAEL uncertainty factor</i>	1
<i>Interspecies uncertainty factor</i>	3
<i>Intraspecies uncertainty factor</i>	10
<i>Cumulative uncertainty factor</i>	30
<i>Inhalation reference exposure level</i>	3 ppm (3,000 ppb, 4 mg/m ³ , 4,000 µg/m ³)

A NOAEL of 1000 ppm for developmental malformations was observed in mice exposed for 7 hours/day on days 6 through 15 of gestation (Rogers *et al.*, 1993). Although not a chronic study, the endpoint, teratogenicity, is a function of exposure only during gestation, especially in the case of a non-accumulating compound such as methanol. Therefore, an uncertainty factor to account for differences between subchronic and chronic exposures was not required. The investigators calculated maximum likelihood estimates (MLEs) using a log-logistic model for both 1% and 5% added risks above background. The most sensitive developmental toxicity endpoint was an increase in the incidence of cervical ribs. The MLE₀₅ and BMC₀₅ for cervical ribs were 824 ppm (1079 mg/m³) and 305 ppm (400 mg/m³), respectively.

VII. Data Strengths and Limitations for Development of the REL

The major strengths of the REL for methanol are the observation of a NOAEL and the demonstration of a dose-response relationship. The major uncertainties are the lack of human data for chronic inhalation exposure, the lack of comprehensive, long-term multiple dose studies, and the difficulty in addressing reproductive short-term effects within the chronic REL framework.

VIII. References

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